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THE EARNING POWER OF CHEMISTRY

BY

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The Earning Power of Chemistry¹

By ARTHUR D. LITTLE

IT may fairly be claimed for chemistry that it is at once the most fundamental and the most comprehensive of all the sciences. Its province, in the classical definition of Ostwald, is "The study of the different forms of matter, their properties, and the changes which they undergo." Thus defined, chemistry embraces the material universe, our solar system, the most distant stars and the flaming nebulae no less than the dust speck within the universe, on which we live and which we call the earth. It includes within its subject matter the physical basis of our own bodies and of those of every living thing upon the earth. It is directly concerned with the air we breathe, the water we drink, the food we eat, the materials upon which we expend our labor, and the things which we buy and sell.

To me has been assigned the pleasant task of bringing home to you some conception of the extent to which you are already indebted to this science and a better appreciation of the comprehensive benefits which it still holds out to you.

The world in which we live is a different world to every individual in it, as it has been a different world to every generation of the race of men. To no other generation have its confines been so opened out and broadened as to our own. To the man congenitally blind, tapping his way along the curb, a modern city is a place of sounds and measured spaces; to one who sees, it becomes a world of light and movement and ever-changing shades. Plymouth Rock is a very ordinary piece of granite to one who knows not its

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history; to the better informed it stands as the symbol of that adventurous spirit and uncompromising virtue on which the foundations of our country rest. To the world at large coal-tar is a black and evil-smelling nuisance; to the eye of the chemist it is replete with all the potentialities of the rainbow.

So it happens that the world as viewed by the chemist presents an aspect different in many ways from that in which it appears to the mind not chemically trained. As the astronomer perceives in the movements of the stars a relationship and coordination to which the average man is blind, and deduces from them generalizations by which both the intellectual and practical life of the community are profoundly influenced, so the chemist, who may be regarded as the astronomer of the infinitely minute, studies the movements and interchange of atoms and the structure of the molecular systems which result therefrom. In other words, the astronomer interprets the universe in terms of certain units, which are the heavenly bodies, while the chemist seeks his interpretation in terms of the ultimate particles of which matter is composed, whether they be molecules, atoms, ions or electrons. And, since the different forms of matter, in their flux and flow, together constitute the universe, the properties of matter and the changes which these properties undergo are of compelling interest and importance to each one of us in every activity of our lives.

We live immersed in an ocean of air and we draw this air into our lungs approximately eighteen times a minute. The quality of this air, its temperature, pressure, humidity, the minute impurities which may be present, affect our comfort and well-being in many ways. It supports the chemical processes of combustion by which our existence is maintained no less than those upon which we are chiefly dependent for light and heat and power. The nature of this all-enveloping atmosphere of air has always been a subject of speculation, though to little purpose before the advent of chemistry.

Modern chemistry had its birth in the eighteenth century study of the air and its relation to the processes of respiration and combustion. Professor Ramsay has said that "To

tell the story of the development of men's ideas regarding the nature of atmospheric air is in great part to write a history of chemistry and physics." The story is one which has reached its culminating interest in our own most recent times. For \$35 you may now buy apparatus for reducing air to the liquid form and study the properties of matter at temperatures nearly as low as that of interstellar space.

Within the memory of the youngest undergraduate in chemistry the brilliant researches of Ramsay, Raleigh and other chemists have disclosed the presence in the air we breathe of five new gases of remarkable and in some respects unique properties. To one of these, neon, we now confidently attribute the long mysterious phenomena of the aurora borealis. Tubes containing highly rarefied neon may become as commonplace to our descendants as candles were to our forefathers. They glow with a rich, mellow, golden light on the passage through them of an electrical discharge.

The heavy toll of life in mine disasters would be unsupportably heavier were it not for the Davy lamp, the fire-damp indicators, the rescue outfits and the regulation of explosives, all of which have become possible only through the growth of chemical knowledge. Ventilating systems as applied to theaters, halls and dwellings are based on chemical studies of the rates and causes of increase in the carbonic acid content in the air of rooms. The proportion of sulphur permissible by law in illuminating gas finds its justification in similar studies on the air in rooms in which such sulphur-bearing gas is burned.

The chemical and biological study of public water supplies, which received its first systematic development little more than twenty years ago at the hands of Drown and Mrs. Richards in the laboratories of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, has been the means of saving countless lives throughout the world and has led to such understanding and made possible such control of sources of pollution as to almost justify the statement that for every case of typhoid fever some one should be hanged. Chemistry can now determine in advance of use the suitability of a given water supply for use in boilers or for the requirements of any special line of industry, as paper-making, dyeing,

cloth finishing, brewing and so on. Furthermore it supplies the means for correcting undesirable characteristics in a water supply as by use of filtration apparatus, coagulants, water-softening systems and the Moore method for the destruction of the algae which in many waters are the cause of unpleasant tastes and odors.

Nowhere is the practical value of chemistry in its relation to the affairs of every-day life more strikingly demonstrated than in connection with our food supply. Chemical fertilizers are in large and constantly increasing measure responsible for the enormous total of our agricultural products. The whole fertilizer business is under the strictest chemical control, and the farmer buys his fertilizer on the basis of a knowledge of its composition and effective value which puts the average purchasing agent of a manufacturing company or public service corporation to shame. The Association of Official Agricultural Chemists, and the laboratories of the agricultural colleges and experiment stations throughout the country are doing more to keep down the cost of living than all the lawmakers we send to state capitols and Washington.

One of the most insistent of the demands of growing plants is that for nitrogen in form available for plant food. A small proportion of the necessary supply of nitrogen in the assimilative form is derived from the manure of farm animals and from animal wastes of various kinds, but for many years the world has depended upon the nitrate beds of Chili as the chief source of this indispensable element of plant growth. It is bad enough to be tied in this way to a single far-away deposit, but the situation becomes alarming when we discover that this deposit can hardly meet the world's demand for nitrate for another twenty years. One may contemplate the Malthusian theory with indifference or even with disbelief, but here is a condition not to be gainsaid. The world must do something to meet it within twenty years or the world must make up its mind to starve. Fortunately for the world the chemists are already doing something. They have recognized that 33,800 tons of nitrogen are pressing down upon every acre of land and have boldly attacked the problem of rendering available such portion

of this inexhaustible supply as the world may need. The methods employed have been daring and brilliant in the extreme.

In 1785 Cavendish in a paper before the Royal Society describes the production of nitric acid by the passage of an electric spark through air. A hundred years later Bradley and Lovejoy at Niagara Falls, by drawing air through an apparatus by which 400,000 arcs were made and broken each minute, demonstrated the possibility of the commercial manufacture of nitrates from atmospheric air. Birkeland and Eyde in Norway pass the air through furnaces in which it comes in contact with enormous flaming and rotating arcs. Rossi in Italy brings the air in contact with highly incandescent material of special composition. Although by these several processes nitrate has been produced by thousands of tons it is doubtful if the artificial product can yet compete with Chili niter. Even now, however, the margin is not a wide one and the results already accomplished amply prove that when our agriculture begins to feel the pinch of a failing nitrate supply the chemist may safely be relied on to meet the situation. This assurance is rendered doubly sure by the fact that a solution of the problem along altogether different lines is already nearly or quite within our hands. Dr. Frank has shown that by heating calcium carbide, itself a comparatively recent product of the laboratory, in a stream of nitrogen there is formed a new compound, calcium cyanamide. The practical interest in this compound depends upon the fact that when exposed to a current of steam it decomposes into ammonia and carbonate of lime and that the same reaction takes place slowly in the soil when the cyanamide is mixed therewith. Since the nitrogen in ammonia is directly assimilable by plants and since calcium carbide requires for its production only lime and coke and power we may view without serious concern the approaching failure of the Chilean nitrate beds.

But it is not only on the side of agriculture that chemistry touches our food supply. Chemistry pervades the packing industry, reducing the cost of food by utilization of by-products of the most varied character from oleomargarine to glycerine and soap and from soap to pepsin and

adrenalin. To Atwater and his coworkers we owe our knowledge of the energy-producing value of different foods in the human economy, and to Wiley and those other chemists behind him on the firing line we are indebted for the far-reaching benefits of the Pure Food Law.

Carbon disulphid made in the Taylor electric furnace has preserved the wine industry of France by destroying the phylloxera as it is ridding our own fields of prairie dogs and our elevators of rats and mice. Bread-making and brewing are coming each year more and more within the recognized domain of chemistry, which is at the same time greatly enhancing the value of our staple crop by the increasing production of glucose, corn oil and gluten. Exactly one hundred years ago Kirchhof discovered the inversion of starch to glucose by dilute acids. To-day the United States alone is richer by \$30,000,000 a year by reason of that discovery.

The relation of chemistry to the clothes we wear is perhaps less obvious but still of the first importance. More land is planted to cotton and cotton itself is cheaper because chemistry has taught the planter how to secure increased yields by proper fertilization and how to obtain increased profits by utilization of the cottonseed for oil and cattle feed. Chemistry is even now developing new sources of profit for the planter by adapting the short fiber adhering to the ginned cottonseed hull to the making of smokeless powder and the stalks of the cotton plant to paper-making.

The woolen industries are dependent upon chemistry for the processes of separating the pure fiber from the grease and dirt with which it is associated in the raw wool and for the methods of working up this wool waste into oleic acid, soap, lubricating oils and potash and ammonia salts, as well as for the process of carbonizing by which the wool is separated from the burrs and other vegetable material with which it is admixed in the fleece.

Many of the most brilliant achievements of chemistry have been directly concerned with the textile industries. A little touch of chemistry to cotton yarns and fabrics in the mercerizing process gave the world what is practically a new textile fiber — cotton with the beauty and luster of

silk. A history of absorbing interest replete with struggle, the capture of positions of temporary advantage, the constant shifting of the fighting line, crushing defeats and signal victories might be written of the development of the bleach and alkali industry, upon the products of which the textile manufacturer depends for the finishing of his goods. We see the pathetic figure of Le Blanc dying in the poorhouse after enriching the world which Napoleon was devastating. No less interesting in its human and scientific aspects is the long story of the coal-tar colors in which chemists take so large a measure of justifiable pride. An investment of \$750,000,000 follows Perkin's discovery of mauve.

Less notable, but nevertheless an industrial achievement of the highest order is the very modern development of artificial silk which, though made from wood pulp, far surpasses in brilliance and beauty the finest products of China and Japan. Closely related thereto, is the artificial horsehair of which so large a proportion of women's hats are made and the still more recent artificial bristles of cellulose acetate with which you may have brushed your hair this morning.

A complex series of chemical reactions has its origin in the striking of every match, and civilization as we know it could hardly exist without the modern facilities for securing artificial light. For the extraordinary extension of these facilities during the past century the chemist has mainly been responsible. The immortal Faraday selected "The Chemistry of a Candle" as the subject matter of a classical series of lectures to audiences of children. From the rush candle and the tallow dip to the candles of stearin and paraffin is in itself a long journey, the milestones on which were set by Scheele, Chevreul, Heintz and Tilghman.

The refining of petroleum involved the solution of many difficult chemical problems. The Chicago fire is said to have been started by Mrs. O'Leary's cow which kicked over a kerosene lamp. In those days, however, it was not necessary to invoke the cow to start a conflagration with kerosene. Much of the lighting oil upon the market at that time would flash below 100° F. We owe our present

safety in the use of kerosene largely to the work of Professor Chandler.

The production of illuminating gas is wholly a chemical process. When coal gas was first employed for lighting the Houses of Parliament the members might be seen gingerly touching the pipes to discover if they were not indeed hot from carrying such flame. That gas is now so cheap is due in large part to the development by Lowe of the chemical process for making water gas by passing steam through a bed of glowing coals and to the chemical processes for gas enrichment. By the Blaugas system illuminating gas is now produced in liquid form and distributed in steel bottles to isolated consumers like so much kerosene.

The gas mantle by which the illuminating power of gas is raised from 16 to 60 candles on a consumption of $3\frac{1}{2}$ feet an hour constitutes one of the most signal triumphs of chemical research. Certain sands found in Brazil and known as monazite sands had long been a happy hunting ground for chemists by reason of the number of rare metallic elements to be found therein. They seemed to be a sort of chemical garret where everything not otherwise used up during the process of creation had been stowed. Dr. Carl von Welsbach was investigating the rare elements in these sands some thirty years ago and studying their spectra. It occurred to him that a better flame for his purpose or rather a better distribution of the metallic vapor in the ordinary Bunsen flame might be secured by distributing the metallic compound through the substance of a bit of cambric. He dipped the cambric in a solution of the salts, suspended it in the flame, burned off the cotton, and found that the fragile ash glowed with an amazing brilliance. So came into being the gas mantle which has revolutionized and saved the illuminating gas industry, though not until the initial discovery had been followed by years of the most painstaking and refined research.

In the development of electric lighting the chemist has played a part scarcely less important than that of the electrician.

The arc light was first shown by Davy between char-

coal points and was maintained by the current developed by the action of chemicals in the enormous battery of the Royal Institution. To Faraday, whose achievements in electricity have overshadowed his renown as a chemist, we owe the discoveries upon which our modern methods of generating electricity are based. The early history of the incandescent lamp is a chronicle in equal measure of the difficulties of finding a proper material for the filament and those of producing the requisite degree of vacuum in the bulb. Both problems were solved by chemistry which first supplied the carbon filament made by dissolving cellulose, squirting the solution into a thread of the required diameter, drying and carbonizing the thread and thereafter flashing in an atmosphere of hydrocarbon vapor to deposit carbon on the filament precisely where and in exactly what proportion its original inequalities of resistance to the current made necessary. More recently Whitney and other chemists working in the same field first greatly raised the efficiency of the filament by the process of metallizing, so-called, and have since given us lamps of an altogether new order of usefulness by employing new materials, as tungsten, for the filament.

The second great problem, that of securing rapidly and cheaply the necessary high vacuum in the bulb, was solved in the most elegant manner by the extraordinary Malignani process. Malignani placed within the tubulature leading from the bulb and connecting the bulb and pump, a minute quantity of red phosphorus, started the pump and roughly exhausted to about 2 mm. of mercury. He then sent through the filament a current so heavy as to bring the filament to intensive incandescence and cause the gaseous residue within the bulb to faintly glow so that the bulb was filled with a luminous blue haze. He then sealed off the pump by fusion of the walls of the tubulature below the phosphorus and with the bulb still glowing touched the tip of the blowpipe flame to that portion of the tubulature wall against which the phosphorus rested. With the vaporization of the phosphorus the blue haze instantaneously disappeared and an almost perfect vacuum was secured within the bulb. The process is not one of oxygen combustion as

might on first thought appear and its ultimate mechanism was not understood until many years subsequent to its discovery.

The improvements in incandescent lamps in the last ten years have resulted in the saving of \$24,000,000 a year in the cost of lighting as compared with the cost of equal illumination by the older types of lamp.

To the art of illumination Wohler and Willson have contributed the calcium carbide and acetylene found on every automobile and in a hundred thousand isolated homes; Pintsch and Blau have developed separate systems permitting the transport of illuminating gases in steel tanks for the lighting of trains and houses; to Hewitt we owe the mercury lamp, to other inventors the flaming arc, to Nernst the high efficiency lamp which has his name, and, long before them all, to Bunsen the blue flame burner utilized by Welsbach and which constitutes the basic element in every gas stove.

I have endeavored in this cursory and most inadequate survey to indicate something of the extent to which chemistry contributes to the satisfaction of the demands and needs of every-day life. The earning power of the science becomes more directly apparent in its relation to general industry.

American manufacturing is in many respects the most intensive in the world. Nowhere is plant scrapped so quickly to be replaced by larger, faster and more efficient machines. Nowhere else is labor so speeded up by piece work, bonuses, motion studies, gang organization and the other devices of the efficiency engineer. In no country can new office systems, typewriters, adding machines, time recorders, memory ticklers, duplicating devices and all the paraphernalia of the follow-up be sold as quickly and in none are they utilized so thoroughly. Our manufacturers understand these things, and what they understand they want, and are quick to make the most of, provided always they can use it in their business. They do not understand chemistry, naturally they do not propose to have any chemist teach them their business. This is reflected in the attitude of their subordinates which is commonly one of militant

skepticism. They, like their masters, cut themselves off from that great coordinated and organized body of knowledge brought together by thousands of highly trained minds through the incessant questioning of nature during a hundred years. They pay less regard to many of the laws of nature than they do to city ordinances. When under these circumstances they fail to make a satisfactory profit in competition with more enlightened Germany, they jack up the tariff. They ignore applied chemistry which offers them better protection than the highest schedules of the Aldrich bill.

Let us consider a few concrete examples of the earning power of chemistry. A large pulp mill found itself with over 100,000 cords of peeled wood piled in its yard and this wood was beginning to rot. A few thousand gallons of sulphite liquor sprayed over the pile from a garden hose killed the fungus and saved the pile. The same mill was losing 23 per cent. of its wood as barker waste. Laboratory trials proved that an excellent quality of paper could be made from this waste, all of which in this mill is now profitably worked up. Other mills still throw 20 per cent. or more of their initial raw material away. The mill was cooking in 16 hours. Laboratory cooks were made in $7\frac{1}{2}$ hours and the time of the mill cook reduced to 10. Finally, by a proper spacing of the digesters, the production of the plant was brought from 97 tons a day to 149 tons.

Cylinder oils generally cost about what you are accustomed to pay. Plants which employ a chemist pay from 19 to 27 cents. Manufacturers who do not need a chemist commonly pay 45 cents, 65 cents or even, if they know their own business very well, \$1.50 a gallon. There is probably not a large plant in the country in which, if it is not already under chemical control, the lubrication account cannot be cut in two. In the engine room of one large cement plant the average monthly cost for lubricants had been \$337. It is now \$30. A concern paying 37 cents a pound for a special grease which the superintendent needed to run the mill now buys on specification for $5\frac{1}{2}$ and the

mill still runs. Another company within our knowledge saves \$12,000 a year on cutting oils alone.

In a plant near Boston using two tons a week of special steel rolled very thin, their chemist was able in about two years to reduce the cost of the material from 80 to 40 cents a pound while at the same time standardizing and greatly improving the quality of the steel. We recall savings of \$2,100 a year on wrapping paper, \$3,600 on boiler compounds, \$6,800 on a minor article of supply, \$100,000 a year on a single raw material. Professor Duncan, in his fascinating and suggestive book, "The Chemistry of Commerce," says: "On three separate occasions the writer has visited the same glass house to see the workmen bailing out a lake of violet spoiled glass from the same immense tank, and all because it was deemed by the foreman 'theoretical' to have the manganese analyzed in order that its quality might be adjusted to its oxidizing value. Thousands of dollars were thus wasted and thousands more lost through failure of the firm to fulfil its contracts on time, and all of it could have been saved at the cost of, say, \$10 for a simple analysis."

Chemistry points out the only proper way to buy supplies which is on the basis of their industrial efficiency by means of specifications defining the quality desired and rigid tests to make sure that quality is secured. Independent estimates by those in exceptional positions to know place the efficiency value of supplies as purchased and used by American manufacturers at 60 per cent. of what it should be.

Comparatively few American manufacturers light their cigars with \$20 bills. It is too slow a method of burning money. They prefer to burn it by shovelfuls, so they burn it in the boiler-room. They forget that in ostensibly buying coal they are really buying heat and they pay good money for slate and sulphur balls with no knowledge of the actual number of British thermal units they are receiving for a dollar. Perhaps they depend upon a trade name, ignoring the fact that coals from different mines in the same district vary greatly as does also coal from the same mine. Moreover coal, like some other

things, is not always true to name. A few years ago the Boston School Committee decided to buy its coal on specification. It had previously bought "New River coal of the best quality" and that definition of its desires was included in the specification which, however, also included a chemical definition of what coal bearing this name should be. When deliveries were made by the same dealer who had previously supplied school coal they proved to be an inferior grade of Pennsylvania coal with sulphur in some samples running up to 6 per cent. When the contractor was called to account, he admitted that he did not know the state in which New River coal originates nor the transportation route by which only it could come to Boston. His comment to the committee was, "I don't see what you are fussing about, it's the same coal you've always had." Later when the temperature in the piles in a certain school ran up 90° in one day he was called upon to remove all coal delivered by him to schools in that district and substitute therefor New River coal, which he did at heavy loss to himself and corresponding gain to the city.

Important as are the losses in the initial purchase of coal, they are small compared with those which attend its burning. Many a mill owner looks out of the window and sees, without knowing, his dividends go up the chimney. Under well regulated conditions of combustion the flue gases should contain not less than 12 per cent. of carbonic acid gas. They frequently contain no more than 3 per cent. This means that for every ton of coal burned under the latter conditions more than 52 tons of excess air are heated to the high temperature of the flue gases. Chemistry meets these conditions by analyzing the flue gases and regulating the draft as indicated by the percentage of carbonic acid found. At \$2.25 a ton, which is much below the average price, the fuel bill of the United States was over \$1,000,000,000 in 1910. Of that amount chemistry could easily have saved \$100,000,000.

Chemistry aids the manufacturer who will listen to her teachings in countless other ways. It substitutes a rigid control of processes for the guesswork and uncertainty of

the rule of thumb. It increases the productivity of labor by supplying more efficient processes.

In the sulphur mines of Sicily young boys called *carusi* climb with groans and curses for four hundred feet bearing in a stifling atmosphere 40-pound loads of sulphur ore upon their backs. In Louisiana, thanks to Frash, two concentric pipes are driven to the ore, a hot solution of calcium chloride is forced through one pipe to melt the sulphur which is then pumped to the surface through the other, at a trivial fraction of the cost of raising the ore in Sicily.

In the old days of making paper the rags were piled in a heap, moistened and allowed to stand for weeks until fermentation had proceeded far enough to soften them. Now they are boiled with lime for a few hours. They used to be bleached by the slow action of the sun and dew as they were spread upon the grass. They are brought to better color now over night by bleaching-powder. Cutting tools made from high-speed steels multiply the output of the lathe and planer. The addition of 1 per cent. of calcium chloride to the electrolyzing bath doubles the yield of potassium chlorate.

Chemistry aids the manufacturer by standardizing his product and reducing seconds and rejections. It costs just as much to tan goat skins into seconds as into firsts though seconds bring a third as much. Chemistry even comes to the front bearing ammunition during an advertising campaign. You may remember the offer of a blowpipe and a bit of charcoal coupled with the information that if your paint was a lead paint as the advertiser believed it should be you could quickly prove its quality in the laboratory of your kitchen by reducing from the paint a little pellet of metallic lead. You do not see that advertisement now. It disappeared about the time that some one else informed the world that zinc paints are "unalterable even under the blowpipe."

Nowhere, however, does chemistry render such efficient service to the manufacturer as in turning to profit waste and nuisance. To this phase of its service we shall return again.

To quote once more Professor Duncan:

“During the next five years the small manufacturer who is swept out of existence will often wonder why. He will ascribe it to the economy of large scale operations, or business intrigues or what not, never knowing that his disaster was due to the application of pure science that the trust organizations and large manufacturers are already beginning to appreciate.”

A few of us have been surprised, and none more than the railway managers themselves, by the well supported statement before the Interstate Commerce Commission that the railroads of the country could save \$300,000,000 a year by the application of scientific management to the operation of their properties. Every chemist who has studied the problem is well aware that the entire amount in question could be saved through utilization of the proved results of chemistry alone.

Abraham S. Hewitt is authority for the statement that the Bessemer process has added \$2,000,000,000 yearly to the world's wealth. By far the greatest portion of this increment has come through the economies which this process of steel-making has rendered possible in transportation.

Our own study of car painting practice on 21 electric roads has developed the fact that 50 per cent. of the cost of materials and labor is wasted and more than 50 per cent. of the time spent by the cars in the shops is unnecessary.

The classic work of Dr. Dudley as the head of the laboratories of the Pennsylvania system has gone far to standardize railroad practice throughout the country. Few even among railroad men realize how greatly the whole community is in his debt. His specifications cover rails, soaps, disinfectants, oils for signals and for lubricating, paints, steel in special forms for every use, car wheels, cement, signal cord and every detail of equipment. He has made the transportation of life and property cheaper, safer and more expeditious by reason of his application of chemistry to the problems of railroad management.

In a recent address Dr. Frankforter, voicing the opinion of every thoughtful chemist, said: “The United States is the most wasteful nation in the world; wasteful in living,

wasteful in manufacturing, and wasteful in conserving its natural resources." So heedless and appalling is this waste that the mind trained in chemistry stands aghast. I have lately visited a southern lumber mill which burns 1,900 cords of wood a day in its incinerator. There are two hundred such burners in the country limited in destructiveness only by the amount of material sent to them. From such wood chemistry is prepared to extract three gallons of turpentine a cord, 10 gallons of ethyl alcohol, or paper pulp to the value of \$20. We waste each year 500,000,000 tons of coal and each day a billion feet of natural gas. With peat deposits fringing our entire eastern coast we pay \$4 a ton for coal delivered on the bog. Beehive coke ovens flame for miles in Pennsylvania and excite no comment while the burning of a \$1,000 house would draw a mob. We fill the Merrimac River with wool grease making it a stench, while the towns along its course buy soap and fertilizer and lubricants from Chicago, Chili, and Pennsylvania. We burn coal-tar in Massachusetts and import coal-tar colors at high prices from Germany. Over the great northwest we burn each year 5,000,000 tons of flax straw while we pay \$40 a ton for imported paper stock from Norway. In the South 300,000 tons of paper fiber of the highest grade are burned with the cottonseed hulls to which it is attached or used with them to adulterate cattle feed. Cornstalks to an incalculable tonnage rot or are burned each year while chemistry stands ready to convert them into feed containing 30 per cent. of sugars on the dry basis, or into alcohol for light and power. Waste molasses is sold for three cents a gallon or dumped into the stream while alcohol sells for forty cents a gallon. Skim milk is fed to hogs or thrown away because no one has the enterprise to extract its casein which is worth more than beefsteak for food.

In the face of such conditions we still meet young men who would inform us that the day of opportunity is past. The truth is that opportunity is knocking not once but insistently and long at every entrance to the chemist's laboratory.

Nowhere is the earning power of chemistry better shown

than in its ability to transform cheap raw materials into products of exceptional value. A cord of wood is worth perhaps \$10 with a dry weight of a little over a ton. Its value, therefore, is about a half a cent a pound. In the form of chemical fiber for paper-making half the weight is lost but the remainder is worth $2\frac{1}{4}$ cents a pound. As paper it finds a market at 4 cents. Made into artificial silk by more refined chemical processes it commands \$2.00 a pound, while as cellulose acetate bristles it is worth \$4.00.

Many of our great industries are founded on minute chemical facts. Goodyear drops a bit of gum mixed with sulphur on a hot stove and the rubber industry results. The fact that silver salts happen to blacken when exposed to light is responsible for a corporation with \$35,000,000 capital on which the earnings are over 20 per cent. a year. The dipping of cotton yarn in caustic soda while tightly stretched has revolutionized the manufacture of the better grades of cotton textiles. Because the chemist learns that glycerine treated with nitric acid becomes explosive our army engineers are able to separate two continents. Becquerel, having placed a bit of uranium upon a photographic plate in a black paper wrapper, finds on development that the plate has blurred. The observation leads Professor and Madame Curie to study similar actions by uranium ores and presently the thought of the world is enriched by altogether new conceptions of the constitution of matter, and our minds are awed by the magnitude of forces previously unrecognized.

Two classes of securities find a ready sale in Massachusetts — $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. bonds and gold bricks. It is not an easy matter to raise money for a sound chemical proposition which promises 20 per cent. Much the same conditions undoubtedly prevail throughout the country. Boston, which invested largely in sea water gold, the Hickman machine for converting starch to cane sugar, and the electrical process by which spruce wood was transformed into Australian wool with the grease in and the burrs attached, is just now figuring its losses on synthetic rubber. It left to other communities the formula of the Altoona cobbler for

burning ashes, the process for converting water into kerosene, and the Lamoine diamonds. Men who turn a box of strawberries upside down and require a pastor's certificate of character from the office boy, rush into misapplied chemistry with never a thought of expert investigation or advice. The pity is the greater when one realizes, as every chemist does, the generous scale by which are measured the rewards of chemistry properly applied and wisely administered. Ten years ago a Massachusetts company with a capital of \$20,000 was organized to conduct a manufacture based on chemistry; two years ago it charged off \$700,000 on real estate and equipment; to-day it has a surplus of over \$1,000,000. The great Badische Anilin und Soda Fabrik, the Elberfeld Co., Brunner, Mond & Co., the E. I. duPont de Nemours Powder Co., Meister, Lucius & Bruning, the Solvay Process Co., and many others well known to every chemist are among the most profitable industrial organizations in the world. The one thing lacking for an enormous development in this country of equally profitable enterprises based on chemistry is a reasonable appreciation by our business men of the earning power of chemistry.

The ordinary investor who may safely trust his own judgment in matters involving cotton, wheat, mortgages, railroad shares or telephones is not equipped by training or experience to decide upon the validity of propositions involving chemistry. He must, if he would avoid disaster, rely upon the opinion of disinterested experts. Such opinion should cover the soundness of the chemistry involved, the state of the art relating to the manufacture, the patent situation, the available market, the nature and extent of competition, the supply of raw material, the stage of development of the process, the cost of plant and the costs of production. These last should be itemized and the basis for conclusions regarding every item should be fully stated. Large allowances should invariably be made for depreciation and in most cases equally liberal allowances for contingencies. Secret processes should be left to the fool and his money.

In this environment and on this occasion I cannot for-

bear making a brief concluding reference to that organization of chemists which now enjoys your hospitality. At Northumberland, Pa., there lies the body of an obscure English dissenting clergyman who went through life on a salary of £30 a year, although he had enriched the world by the discovery of oxygen. It was around the grave of Priestley on July 31, 1874, that the idea of the American Chemical Society first took form in the minds, and may I add the hearts, of a few American chemists met to do honor to his memory. Subsequent meetings were held in New York at the home of that Nestor among American chemists, Prof. Charles F. Chandler, until on April 20, 1876, the Society was formally organized. From a feeble organization of distinctly local character, with only 200 members in 1887 it has through the service and self-sacrifice of a long series of devoted officers become the largest chemical society in the world, with 5,500 members, and is today the most powerful influence in America for the advancement of chemical science. Its claim upon the loyalty and support of every American chemist can no longer be denied or set aside. With equal justification it may appeal to the whole community for recognition and encouragement.

There are in the country at least 100,000 doctors and nearly 125,000 lawyers. There are only 10,000 chemists to carry on a work incomparably more important than litigation and no less beneficial than medicine to the life of the community if that life is to be worth living. Some measure of the mere material benefits which chemistry can offer may be found in the fact that the annual production of the chemical industries of the United States is already nearly equal in value to our agricultural products. Let us, however, not forget that these benefits have come, as many more will follow, because chemists have never faltered in pursuing truth for years through the labyrinth of difficult researches with no better guide than the slender and often broken thread of an hypothesis. Turgot has said: "What I admire in Christopher Columbus is not that he discovered the new world but that he went to look for it on the faith of an idea."

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